

CONSUMERS' *Guide*

Volume IV, No. 6

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GREENS IN THE SALAD BOWL

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ATE this month a man, bearing a meticulously wrapped package containing an object which was brought to this country in 1892, is going to board a trans-Atlantic vessel. He will carry his parcel to a certain building in Paris. There the package will be opened and the contents examined. If the object is found to be in perfect condition, it will be wrapped up again and carried by the same man back to the United States. If it is not in perfect condition, it will be made perfect and then released for its return voyage.

More precious than all the jewels in the country, the contents of this mysterious package is a cylinder of equal diameter and height, 90 percent of which is platinum and 10 percent iridium. Its metal value is infinitesimal compared with its use value. It is one of two copies, owned by the United States Government, of the ultimate kilogram, safely kept in an underground vault in Paris, which is recognized by 30 countries, our own included, as the perfect standard of weight. Its counterparts in this country are the official gage of accuracy for all standards of weight used in buying and selling commodities. They repose in the National Bureau of Standards at Washington, and once in a long time one of these copies must be carried back to Paris to be weighed and tested against the international standard kilogram. An official of that Bureau carries it over and back.

Common language denoting units of weight and measure has been ac-

cepted for so many decades, most modern buyers and sellers have come to take it for granted. But a "pound" was not always a pound; sometimes it came light, sometimes heavy. A "foot" varied with the size of the pedal extremity of some monarch. Units of quantity expanded and contracted, varied from town to town, from seller to seller, from country to country. Out of this confusion, incredible to us now, grew the demand for simple, uniform, fixed, comparable, and universally understandable standards of weights and measures. All civilized countries are now agreed within themselves and between themselves as to what is a "kilogram", a "meter", and, by derivation, what is a "liter." Each country defines its own variations of these units in terms of the international standards.

Today the demand for a common understanding between buyers and sellers is not as to "how much" is in an article offered for sale but "how good" it is. Quality, admittedly, is a highly variable concept. A language expressing it in terms as simple, uniform, fixed, comparable, and universally understandable as our terms for weights and measures will not be easily arrived at. Nevertheless, a beginning can be made in that direction.

ALREADY some retailers are moving toward a common quality language through the Committee on Merchandise Standards of the National Retail Dry Goods Association Platform Commission. This committee is at work on details of a program to develop standards and specifications for staple merchandise, informative labels, and factual advertising. The following eight points, reported in the April issue of the National Retail Dry Goods Association *Bulletin*, are the "highlights" of this plan:

"1. Elimination, where it exists, of misleading, exaggerated, or inade-

quate elements in factual merchandise information in advertising, labeling, store signs, sales promotion, selling talks of sales clerks, etc.

"2. Development of a plan for completely truthful and adequate factual merchandise information in advertising, labeling, store signs, sales promotion, selling talks, etc.

"3. Cooperation with manufacturers, retailers, and consumer representatives in developing standard terminology for retailer and buying public.

"4. Cooperation with manufacturer and consumer interests in development of standards of performance, durability, measurement, composition, and fiber identification.

"5. Aid of National Retail Dry Goods Association Sales Promotion Division to redefine and further promote standards of advertising practice.

"6. Encouragement of manufacturers to set up own standards, subject to approval of those interested.

"7. Certification of tested materials by recognized bodies, and cooperation of such agencies in issuing certifications identical in scope and meaning.

"8. Full cooperation with proposed Consumer-Retailer Relations Council, now in process of formation."

SOME consumer groups, eager for a common quality language or code, are beginning to raise the question: Will we need to define standards for standards, certify the certified? Before consumers can appraise the value of a set of standards proposed for their use, they suggest, some behind-the-scenes facts should be known, such as: Who has set up the standards? How do they compare with Government standards? Were consumers consulted in their definition? How scientific and disinterested is the attitude of the sponsors of the standards? Who finances the policing of the use of the standards?

"Big Boston" belongs to the butterhead lettuces, a group so called because of the oily center leaves.



GREENS IN THE SALAD BOWL

Cows cropping grass, and rabbits nibbling lettuce, have the edge on many humans in the matter of good diet. By nature they prefer what is good for them—the tenderest shoots and the greenest plants—while it may take a 10-year campaign waged by scientists to sell humans the idea of writing leafy vegetables large on the bill of fare.

By now we should not need a food expert to start us on the salad road to health. Taste alone recommends a dish of cool greens for summer days. Rub a wooden bowl with a clove of garlic, toss in crisp lettuce leaves, mix with oil, vinegar, pepper, and salt, and you have a hot-weather dish hard to beat. But there is no reason to pack away the salad bowl for the rest of the year. Vitamins and mineral salts stored in green things provide cheap health insurance during winter months. If you are training for a marathon or hop-

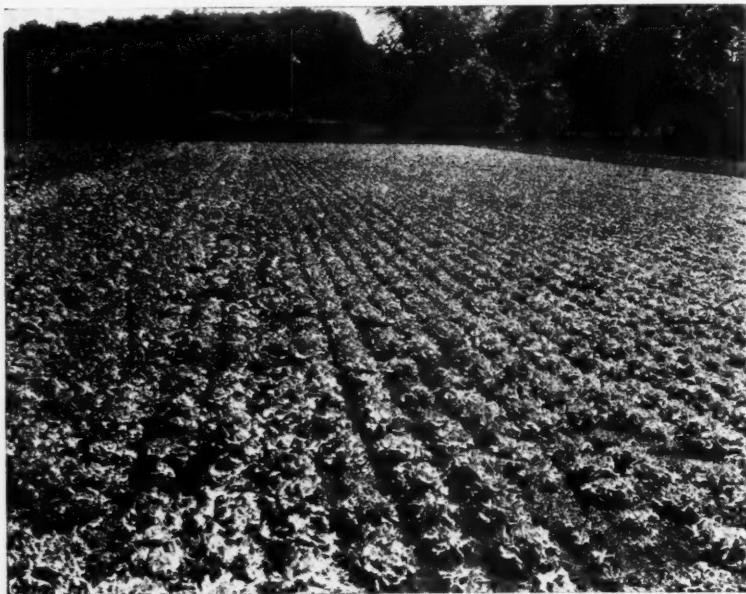
ing to tip the scale at an additional 10 pounds, you won't find the necessary calories in salads. Keep to your beefsteaks and potatoes then. But for the body-building minerals, such as iron and calcium, salad plants are an essential. Thanks to improved methods of growing, refrigerating, and transporting, some form of this highly perishable food can put in an appearance at the dinner table every day of the year.

Most important of our salad crops is lettuce with its four types, the crisp head, the butterhead, cos or romaine, and leaf. Though its rise to popularity is recent, lettuce can trace its origin back hundreds of years to a plant carried from Europe to the Himalayas. It derives its name from the "Lactuca" of classical times,

whose milky fluid served the Romans as freckle remover and sedative. In the seventeenth century Lettis won a reputation for cooling a "hot and fainting stomach."

Crisp head lettuce is the reigning favorite in markets from coast to coast. A good representative of the crisp heads is the New York variety, with its compact, crumpled center of silvery leaves bedded in curling, glossy-textured leaves of dark green. The grocer will probably sell you the New York under the name of Iceberg, for he uses the latter term loosely to designate several rather similar sorts of heading lettuce. The true Iceberg, much like New York, has a distinctive reddish-brown tinge along the outer edges of the center leaves.

Better bids to consumers to look to their "greens" come this year with lettuce supplies a quarter larger than average. Here are tips on how to get variety and flavor in the salad bowl



Lettuce planting practices vary with soil and climate conditions. New York growers frequently plant in single rows, as in this field of "Iceberg" lettuce.

Long the main commercial crop of western lettuce growers, the crisp head type has made its bow along the Atlantic seaboard. However, until a strain is developed to suit new growing conditions, Iceberg will probably not threaten the supremacy of butterhead lettuce in the East.

On its home ground in the East the butterhead holds its own. Smaller, softer than the Iceberg, the butterhead has straight-edged leaves of a rather coarse texture. It gains its name from its tender golden heart leaves. Not so handsome as its western rival, the butterhead makes up in flavor for what it lacks in looks. Of the several varieties—Big Boston, White Boston, Unrivaled, May King—Big Boston is the only one offering competition to Iceberg in the carload movement of lettuce and then only in limited areas. If you live in northeastern United States, look for an abundance of butterheads in the spring months.

Cos or romaine is another heading lettuce. This tall, thin member of the lettuce family comes to market

by truck in the spring and fall. Its elongated head is composed of narrow leaves, bleaching from medium green at the outside to creamy white at the center. Thick midribs give the leaves a crunchy, full body, and flavor is rich.

Leaf lettuce makes a good showing at roadside stands during the spring and summer months. Market gardeners like to grow this plant because of its hardy nature, and greenhouse leaf lettuce still finds a ready sale in Pittsburgh, Cleveland, and certain other eastern markets. But both the straight-edged, smooth-leaf type of leaf lettuce and the Grand Rapids variety with its wavy, tightly curled green leaves, are losing ground steadily to the heading lettuces.

Certain buying tips hold good whatever the kind of lettuce. Lettuce should be fresh and crisp, with tender leaves. Dead or discolored spots on the outer leaves indicate decay. A few broken leaves will not affect quality, and the reddish color at the bruises is due to a natural

change and is not a sign of decay. Avoid a head with touches of slimy rot. Sometimes a head with a well-developed seed stalk finds its way to market. This stem warns of an over-mature head that will be bitter. Even though such a stem has not burst through the leaves, it may be apparent as a swelling at the top or side of the head. An inquisitive thumb can detect this hard core within the leaves.

Should the family grumble about monotony in the salad menu, visit the large outdoor markets or poke about the small shops of the foreign sections for the chicory and endive beloved by the Latin race. These salad plants have an arresting, bitter tang that gives pleasing variation to the salad bowl.

Chicory serves a twofold purpose. Its roots may go into your morning cup of coffee as an adulterant; tops, into salad making. Witloof is the most popular of the chicory varieties, its crisp white heads making a delicious winter salad. The method of growing is this: The Witloof chicory roots first put forth broad green leaves. These leaves are cut off and the roots buried under 8 inches of sand. The weight of this covering keeps solid the second growth of foliage that now pushes up. Blanched white by their protection from the sun, these closely folded leaves look somewhat like celery stalks. They have a finer texture; however, and a sharper flavor. If the grocer doesn't know what you mean by Witloof chicory, ask for Belgian or French endive, since these names are used interchangeably.

Endive has two types little resembling each other. The springing, curly green leaves of such varieties as Giant Fringed dress up a salad bowl to advantage. These come to many markets the year round. The second type—the broad-leaved Batavian endive of the South—is shipped north in fall and winter under

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the name of escarole. Because escarole leaves in their green state are unpleasantly bitter, they are generally blanched to improve flavor. For this purpose, farmers cover the plants with boards or tie the leaves together to exclude sunlight. The result—a product much like Witloof chicory, with a flavor strong enough to be interesting but not so bitter as to be unpleasant.

Watercress takes first place for piquancy. Even the Babylonians, it is believed, cultivated this plant with its round dark-green leaves and succulent stalks. Watercress thrives in ponds fed from limestone springs such as are found in Virginia and Maryland. On certain hills of the Ozarks lush patches of deep green follow the courses of innumerable small streams. These are watercress beds, so placed as to receive a constant supply of clear water. Except in freezing winter weather, when plants are flooded to protect them from cold, farmers can gather and ship the tips of the stems.

As with all green vegetables, the color sign applies to the salad crops. That is, the greenest leaves provide the most vitamins. Watercress, a deep rich green, runs through prac-

tically the whole vitamin alphabet with its A, B, C, G content. Leaf lettuce has these same vitamins. A hearts-of-lettuce salad may be extremely decorative, but a good share of the vitamin value went into the discard when harvester, packer, and retailer stripped off the wrapper leaves. These heavy, prosaic leaves supply Vitamins A and G, to supplement the B and C content of the fragile inner leaves.

Though the unusual salad crops are prized by connoisseurs, these endives and chicories play a small part in the commercial growing of salad greens. Lettuce is the kingpin of salad crops. It made up about 75 percent of the greens unloaded in the New York City markets in 1936. Elsewhere the percentage would be higher, for New York City lies in the heart of a farming region that makes a point of supplying the less-known greens that are demanded by the city's huge foreign population. No production figures are available for these minor crops. With lettuce it is a different story, for in the United States lettuce has stepped into second place among vegetables in point of farm value.

Figures tell the story of lettuce in

the last 10 years. Land devoted to commercial lettuce growing stepped up from 105,500 acres in 1926 to 167,000 in 1936—an increase of more than 60 percent. In 1936 production hit a peak of more than 21,800,000 crates—showing a 75-percent expansion since 1926. Total farm value climbed from \$28,000,000 in 1926 to \$31,800,000, 10 years later.

Of the 14 States growing lettuce commercially, California has swung far into the lead, credited with 65 of every 100 crates of lettuce produced in the United States. Arizona comes in a poor second with 18 out of every 100. Washington runs third, squeezing New York into fourth place with her 3 out of every 100 crates. States east of the Mississippi raise less than 10 percent of the lettuce crop.

To find what States produce lettuce and when, follow mild weather around the map. The temperate winters of the Imperial Valley of California, Arizona, and southern Florida assure a supply of winter lettuce; central California and the greater part of the Atlantic coast region provide a spring and fall crop; summer lettuce flourishes in the high altitudes of Colorado, Idaho, and the Great Lakes section. This means that lettuce belongs on the all-year vegetable calendar.



Lettuce makes exacting demands wherever grown and by whatever method. It requires good soil rich in organic matter, sufficient water, plenty of fertilizer, a large amount of hand labor, an even temperature, and protection from its worst enemy—excessive heat. Even after the heads have been cut, they call for special care until they are delivered at the customer's doorstep.

In California lettuce is planted on raised beds about 3 to 5 feet wide. Irrigation ditches separate the beds. Tractors prepare the land, plowing, harrowing, and leveling soil in one operation. A tractor-drawn seeding sled shapes the beds and plants the seeds. Crews of men thin out the young plants when they are an inch or two in height. After that the crop grows quickly to maturity. Usually a lettuce head is well grown in anywhere from 90 to 120 days.

At harvest time trailers laden with baskets move down the rows so that cutters can toss the lettuce heads into the containers. These go to packing houses where trimmers, graders, and packers set to work. Into paper-lined crates packers put layers of lettuce heads, sprinkling finely crushed ice between every two layers. Lidders and labelers speed the crate on its way to the refrigerator car which is spotted on a siding. Here men blow snow ice over the car to keep the load in as good condition as possible on its journey—a journey lasting sometimes as many as 10 days.

This business of transporting and refrigerating a perishable commodity, and one of considerable bulk for its value, is partly responsible for the spread between prices paid by the consumer and the prices received by the lettuce growers for their labor. Even more responsible is the elaborate service that the consumer demands from the retailer. He will not accept any but the freshest heads of lettuce, and he wants to be able to make his choice from a large variety

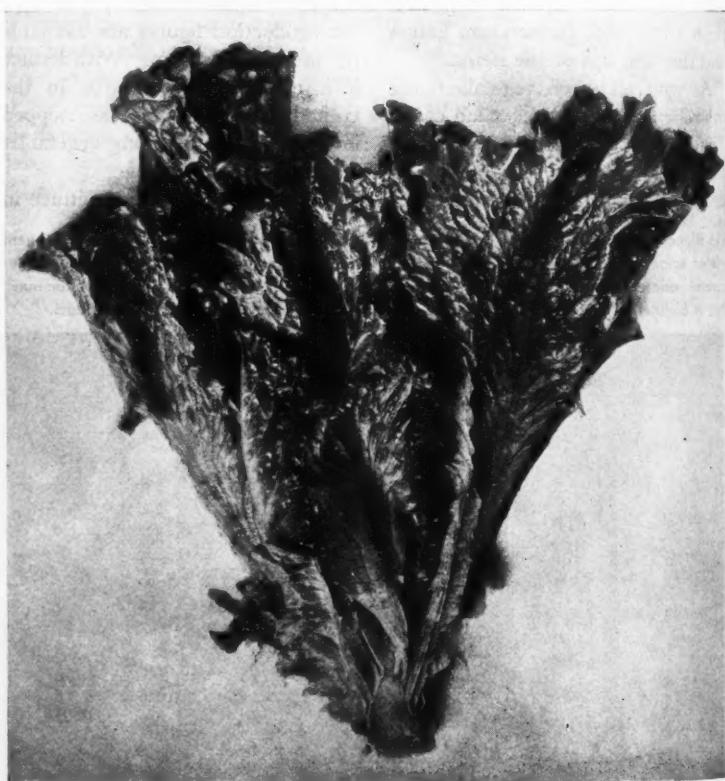
of quality and size. Then, too, country shipper and city wholesaler expect a margin of profit for their services in getting the lettuce head from the farm to the consumer's table. In 1936, 64 cents of every consumer dollar spent for lettuce went to distribution costs; 36 cents went to the farmer himself.

On account of periodic overproduction of lettuce, markets have been frequently oversupplied. The result has been that prices to farmers have sometimes dropped to below-cost levels. Even from day to day, prices seesaw. This is not surprising, for shippers act independently, and whenever they hear that supplies are low in any particular city, they rush consignments to that market irrespective of how many of their competitors are doing likewise.

In an effort to guarantee the grower a fair return, in 1934 lettuce growers and handlers in six counties of western Washington adopted a marketing agreement under the Agricultural Adjustment Act. Colorado followed suit in 1935. The marketing agreement plan is intended to regulate daily shipments of lettuce to market so that growers will not suffer from oversupplying the market, and yet consumers will be assured of a regular supply at a reasonable price. What the ultimate effects of such control will be is a matter of speculation.

Unless weather turns temperamental, you should find plenty of lettuce on the market this month. Estimates say that the annual lettuce production this year is about 28 percent above average.

Most popular nonheading lettuce is the "Grand Rapids" whose green spreading leaves rate higher than the paler kind in Vitamins A and G.



Dissecting CONSUMERS' DOLLARS

"**B**ECAUSE of the unsatisfactory condition of agriculture and of those engaged therein", Congress in August 1935 ordered the Federal Trade Commission to investigate the factors affecting farm incomes, particularly in depression years.

Find out, Congress ordered, the difference between the price paid to the farmer for his raw materials and the price the consumer pays for the finished products. Was this spread, Congress wanted to know, making processors and distributors richer while farmers became poorer? Do processors and distributors use unfair, monopolistic, and illegal practices to maintain this spread? And, finally, what have farmers done for themselves through cooperative associations to increase their share of the final price? For a full discussion of the purposes of this investigation readers should refer to the article "What Is the Farmer's Share", in the **CONSUMERS' GUIDE** for April 6, 1936.

No simple questions these. To answer them fully Federal Trade Commission economists would have had to atomize and analyze the astronomical statistics of American

trade for the 6 years, 1929 to 1935. In 1929 there were 49 billion consumer-dollars spent in retail stores. Finding out what share the farmers of the country had in these 49 billion dollars would have required many more than the 1½ years allotted for the study by Congress, many more dollars than the 300 thousand appropriated. Obviously, no complete answer to these questions was possible with the time and money given to the Commission.

Instead, Federal Trade Commission economists selected six principal farm commodities—wheat, cotton, cattle and hogs, tobacco, milk, and potatoes; studied the incomes of their producers, their processors, and their distributors; studied their prices and the methods by which the goods were distributed, and then issued a report in March of this year.

Independent farm-owning farmers are in jeopardy, the Federal Trade Commission reports, and supports its fears with many statistics. Land represents the farmer's major investment. Symptomatic of the farmer's condition, the average value of an acre of farmland declined from \$39.60 in 1910 to \$31.16 in 1935.

The Federal Trade Commission reports to Congress on farmers' shares in consumers' expenditures for six important agricultural commodities. Here we give the highlights of its general observations. In later issues will come more facts about some of the farm products analyzed. First of the series will be on tobacco

The total value of all farm property declined from approximately 35 billion dollars in 1910 to approximately 33 billion dollars in 1935.

Seeking an explanation for the difficult position of farmers, the Federal Trade Commission turned its spotlight on income statistics of farmers and principal processors in the case of each of the six farm products. Cotton farmers' income in 1934, exclusive of processing-tax benefits, was 48 percent of its 1929 figure, while cotton textile manufacturers' gross income stood at 96 percent of the 1929 level. Wheat farmers received in 1934, exclusive of Agricultural Adjustment Administration benefits, only 45 percent of their 1929 gross income; gross income of flour millers, on the other hand, was down to 74 percent of their 1929 income. Tobacco farmers' income in 1934, again exclusive of Government benefits, was 78 percent, while tobacco manufacturers' income was 91 percent, of 1929 levels. Barring benefit payments, cattle and hog producers took in 51 percent as much cash as in 1929, while the gross income of meat packers was 58 percent of that year. Milk producers' incomes in 1934 were 64 percent of their 1929 income; the figure for fluid milk processors and distributors was 75 percent.

Addition of benefit payments and subtraction of processing taxes would alter this comparison which the Commission reports in its summary. Payments to farmers in the



Half of the consumer's milk dollar in 1934 went to farmers and transporters.



13 cents of the consumer's average bread dollar in 1935 went to the wheat farmer.*



Less than 50 cents of the consumer's average potato dollar in 1935 went to the potato grower.

farm program brought cotton farmers' income in 1934 to 57 percent of the 1929 figure, wheat farmers' income to 60 percent, tobacco farmers' to 91 percent, and cattle and hog producers' income to 59 percent of their income in 1929. For some of these commodities all of the processing taxes paid by processors in 1934 might be deducted from their gross income of that year in making the comparison. For other processors, part or none of the taxes might be deductible depending upon the extent to which processors were able to add them to the prices of the commodities sold.

Getting a picture of the distribution of the consumer's dollar proved to be a difficult task, since no situation remains constant long enough for a picture to be taken. For specific products, however, the Federal Trade Commission was able to break down the consumer's dollar with approximate accuracy, showing the farmers' share and the margin between. Manufacturers' and distributors' "margins" include, of course, costs of performing their various services and profits, if any.

The average fluid milk consumer paid 12 cents for a quart of milk in 1934. Of this, the average milk distributing company took 6 cents, which left 6 cents to pay the farmers and the agency which carried the milk from the farm to the distributor. Sixty cents of the consumer's butter dollar went to the farmer in the same year, 16 cents to the processor, and 24 cents to the railroads, the retailers, and the other nonmanufacturing agencies which handled the butter.

Flour consumers in 1935 paid approximately \$1 for 20 pounds of flour. Of this, 35 cents was the farmer's share, the mills got 22 cents, wholesale and retail distributors collected 33 cents, while the remaining 10 cents went to the other middle-

men. Only 13 cents out of the average bread dollar went to the farmer. Cigarette smokers paid 12 cents out of their cigarette dollar to the grower, and almost 47 cents for the Federal revenue stamp which they find on each package.

Potatoes, which undergo no transformation from the farm to the consumer, one might expect, would yield higher returns to farmers, but here, too, the farmer's share is less than 50 percent of the retail potato dollar. From 50 to 70 cents of the potato dollar went to transportation costs, handling fees, and merchandising mark-ups, and in some cases the farmer received only 30 cents out of the potato dollar.

The consumer's meat dollar bought slightly under 4 pounds of meat in 1935. Of this dollar, the farmer received 40 cents, while the remaining 60 cents went to railroads, packing-house companies, retailers, wholesalers, and other middlemen.

Just as all the water in a gallon jug must pass through a narrow bottleneck, so some farm products must pass through a bottleneck in their passage from a vast number of farms to a still larger number of consumers. Such manufacturing and distributing channels which may be controlled with ease by a few economic interests are like economic narrows. Congress asked the Federal Trade Commission to ascertain whether or not such economic narrows existed in America and, if so, to find out who stood guard over them.

Close to half of all the tobacco produced by the tobacco farmers in America, it was found, was purchased by three large tobacco companies. Of the amount going into domestic consumption, these three probably bought close to 70 percent. In 1934 the three largest cigarette

* Farmers producing wheat, hogs, tobacco, and cotton who cooperated with AAA received more because of benefit payments.



Farmers' share of the consumer's average meat dollar in 1935 was 40 cents.*



12 cents of the consumer's average cigarette dollar in 1934 went to the tobacco growers.*



Farmers' share was 18 cents in the average 1935 dollar spent for sheets, another study shows.*

companies sold 77 percent and the three largest smoking tobacco companies sold 65 percent of these products. Tobacco chewers purchased 69 percent of their chewing tobacco from the three largest chewing tobacco companies, and American snuff consumers bought 95 percent of their snuff from the three largest companies making snuff.

Thirteen flour milling companies in 1935 purchased 65.2 percent of the 1934 commercial wheat crop, and sold 47 percent of all wheat flour in 1935. Ten leading meatpacking companies purchased 51.3 percent of all the cattle and calves produced in 1934, and sold 70.3 percent of all the beef bought by consumers in 1935. One company's sales alone amounted to more than 25 percent of all beef sales to consumers. One milk company handled a volume of milk and milk products representing almost 10 percent of the commercial milk produced. Eleven milk companies controlled the sale of 18 percent of all fluid milk and cream sold in towns and cities, over 25 percent of the butter, nearly 44 percent of the cheese, and more than 60 percent of the canned milk.

Corporations can grow to such huge sizes by various methods: By efficient competition, in giving consumers better quality or lower-priced goods than their competitors; by consolidation, in buying out competitors or combining with them through the formation of holding companies and mergers; or because they produce goods and services that are natural monopolies.

Growth by successful competition often results in certain consumer benefits, but growth by absorption often is at the expense of consumers. The Federal Trade Commission report states, for instance, that in the latter method "these practices were facilitated by unfair methods of competition, or were preceded by price-fixing conspiracies, etc. The



More than 236 farms out of every 1,000—most accurate figures show—were foreclosed between 1930 and 1936. Neighbors gather around while the work horses of one of these defeated farmers are auctioned off.

history of the great meat packers especially is characterized by a variety of unfair devices, such as railroad rebates, controlling the stockyards, and combining for the purchase of livestock by allotting the quantities to be purchased and thus keeping down the prices. In the sale of their meat products, agreements on selling prices, the possession of private car lines, and great chains of branch houses have helped in giving them the advantage over competing companies."

Profits are a commonly accepted index of successful operation of a business. Tobacco processors, biscuit and cracker companies, and chain grocers, by this standard, are comparatively successful. A selected group of 14 tobacco companies earned an annual average return on their capital of 15.8 percent from 1929 to 1935. Three biscuit and cracker companies earned for their stockholders 14.6 percent yearly on their capital investment during this period. Six large chain groceries, most successful of all the companies studied, made an average of 17.4 percent per year on their capital investment for the same 7 years.

Profits of milk processors and distributors, like most others, were lower in the latter half of the period than in the earlier years; for the entire period the annual average return on the investments of 10 companies was 9.57 percent. Four wholesale baking companies netted 8.76 percent yearly, and 16 wheat middlemen 10.59 percent.

Eleven wheat processors earned 7.8 percent annually in this period; three wholesale flour distributors averaged 9.6 percent, and three drug store chains 8.3 percent. For these three groups of companies the worst year was 1932.

Not all processors made money, however; a group of 11 leather companies and another group of 3 cotton processors showed losses for the 7-year period as a whole. Generally, however, processing and distributing companies managed to earn something on their capital investment. A group of 11 meat packers' annual earnings averaged 4.3 percent; 12 shoe manufacturers, 4.8 percent; 7 butter brokers and wholesalers, 4.7 percent; and 2 wholesale drug companies, 6.3 percent.

Salaries also came under the scrupu-

tiny of the Federal Trade Commission. Highest reported total compensation in any company studied by the Federal Trade Commission was that of the president of a tobacco company, who received more than a million dollars in 1 year. Many salaries over \$45,000 were reported. In the tobacco industry the average compensation per officer, the Commission reported, was \$55,000 a year. Officers of milk distributing companies also received very high salaries in some cases. "On the other hand", to quote the Federal Trade Commission, "the salaries for the officers of cooperatives are distinctly too low. They averaged only a little more than \$5,000."

To determine the extent to which unfair, fraudulent, or injurious methods are employed in the grading, warehousing, and distributing of farm products, the Federal Trade Commission looked at the potato. Investigation here revealed specifically dishonest practices, which have since been the basis of indictments and criminal prosecutions. Marketing of potatoes, the Commission discovered, was largely controlled by the companies which financed the farmers. Where farmers are unable to finance themselves, finance companies often charge what the Commission believes to be excessive interest rates and marketing fees.

Potatoes are marketed by local and national marketing agencies, terminal market dealers, and commission merchants. In certain areas the Commission discovered that potatoes were frequently misbranded—though this is a violation of Federal law—and that illegal price-fixing had been carried on.

Useless handling of potatoes, paid for finally by consumers in high prices and by farmers in low returns, were found to be prevalent in New York and Chicago. Other abuses, such as the imposition of useless charges and the maintenance of

cartage monopolies, sometimes enforced by violence, were also found.

No general remedy was offered by the Federal Trade Commission for the problems of farmers and consumers. Instead, it made a series of specific recommendations designed to correct specific abuses.

Monopoly it would curb by amending the Clayton Antitrust Act. This Act, originally passed in 1914 by Congress to prevent the growth of monopolies, has a large loophole, according to the Federal Trade Commission, which makes its enforcement ineffective. The acquisition of the capital stock of one company by another when this would lessen competition or make for monopoly is now forbidden under this law. But there is no prohibition of the direct purchase of a company's physical assets by a competitor. Through this breach in the law many corporations have marched to dominant positions in their industries. Expansion by this method has taken place in the meat-packing industry, the flour-milling business, among milk distributors, in the chain-store networks, and among bakeries.

Going concerns are so intricately bound together that even when a court decree against a monopolistic practice is obtained, it is sometimes impossible to enforce the court order. In 1920 the Packer's Consent Decree ordered certain meat packers to dispose of some stockyards they owned. Now, 16 years later, the decree still remains partially unenforced.

To overcome this problem the Federal Trade Commission believes that it should be given the power by Congress to act to prevent monopoly before the assets of merging companies become inextricably mixed together.

To make these measures doubly sure, the Commission recommends a provision in the law to prevent a corporation from buying the assets of

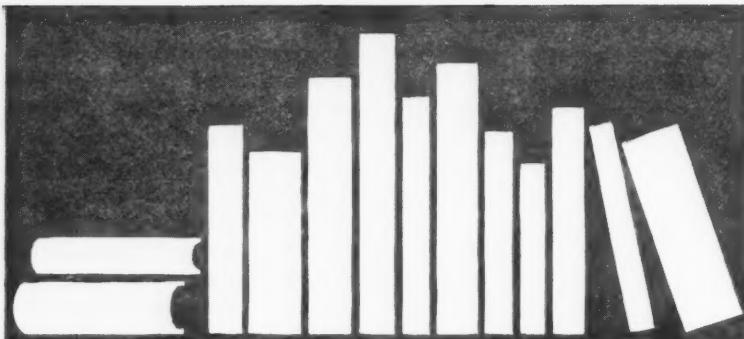
a competing company when the combined assets of the two companies would exceed a certain amount. Still another recommendation would forbid one company from buying the assets of a competitor when the combined value of the two companies would exceed a certain percentage of the total assets in the industry.

Other abuses it would correct by public control of grain elevators, by more effective control of exchanges which deal in commodities, and by the adoption of a new type of tobacco tax based not on quantity or weight but on the retail selling price of the tobacco product, and by the extension of credit facilities to farmers through the Farm Credit Administration.

Farmers through their cooperatives, the Federal Trade Commission suggests, offer a way to bring about orderly marketing for themselves, to reduce the spread between farm and city prices, eliminate the useless handling of commodities, and to enforce the use of standard grades as the basis of sales of farm commodities.

OUR POLL

VOTES so far are unanimously against "technical jargon", but 4 to 1 in favor of more facts to help in judging the relative quality or usefulness of commodities, in the poll we suggested (in the April 19 issue, page 2) we'd like to take. We proposed no scientific test of consumer opinion on this point, but a few of our readers have generously volunteered their votes. One New York City consumer is content with the "constructive, helpful, and accurate information" she gets from stores. Another, apparently less satisfied with available information, votes for "specification labels on rugs, also truth in advertising." So far, in the limited replies which have reached us as we go to press, the balance of opinion is in favor of "information and more information", but "make it nontechnical." Any more votes for or against more informative labeling?



Consumers' BOOKSHELF

More publications on consumers' cooperation, supplementing those reported in our April 5 issue, are listed here in the twelfth installment of our bibliography for students of consumer problems

REPORT OF THE INQUIRY ON COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE IN EUROPE, by Jacob Baker, Leland Olds, Charles E. Stuart, Robin Hood, Clifford V. Gregor, and Emily Cauthorn Bates. 1937, 321 pp., charts. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 65 cents. The material in this report is based on a 2½ months' study of European cooperatives. It is in four sections. Part I, The Methods and Relationships of Cooperative Enterprise, a description of the way cooperatives work and a statement of their general policies regarding relations with agriculture, labor, the State, etc. Part II, The Meaning of Cooperative Enterprise to America, consists of statements by the individual members of the inquiry as to the place of cooperative enterprise in America. Part III, Cooperation at Close Range, gives reports on individual cooperatives in various sections of Europe. Part IV, Appendixes, gives a brief review of cooperation in each of the countries visited and information on special cooperative activities

such as housing and rural electrification. Some statistical tables and charts are included.

CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE STATUTES AND DECISIONS. 1937. Address: Consumers' Project, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. Free (in press). A collection of the consumers' cooperative statutes in the United States, annotated with Court decisions.

CREDIT

CREDIT UNIONS: A STORY OF COOPERATIVE CREDIT. Lesson II, Cooperation. Undated, 16 pp., mimeographed. Address: State of Minnesota, Department of Education, St. Paul, Minn. 10 cents or 25 cents with a series of five other bulletins on cooperation listed previously. Treats of the history, contribution to members, and operation of credit unions. Contains questions on the text and lists additional sources of information on credit unions.

FEDERAL CREDIT UNIONS—COOPERATIVE THRIFT AND CREDIT, Circular I. 1936, 6 pp. Address: Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Free. Defines credit unions and describes briefly the organization and management of Federal Credit Unions.

FEDERAL CREDIT UNIONS—COOPERATIVE THRIFT AND LOAN ASSOCIATIONS. Circular 10. Revised May 1936, 8 pp. Address: Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Free. A brief description of the organization and operation of Federal Credit Unions, with a short historical note on their development.

FIRST BOOKKEEPING STEPS FOR FEDERAL CREDIT UNION TREASURERS. December 1935, 4 pp., mimeographed. Address: Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Available free of charge only to credit union officials or students of credit union problems. Suggestions on how to proceed in setting up a bookkeeping system for credit unions.

LOANS TO FARMERS' COOPERATIVES, Circular No. 6. Revised September 1936, 12 pp. Address: Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Free. A description of the origin, location, purpose, and function of the Banks for Cooperatives. Outlines the services which cooperatives may obtain from the banks for purchasing as well as marketing purposes.

MANUAL OF ACCOUNTING PROCEDURE FOR FEDERAL CREDIT UNIONS. January 1936, 36 pp., multigraphed. Address: Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Available free of charge only to credit union officials and students of credit union problems. This manual was prepared for Federal credit unions in order that

their accounts and accounting records might be maintained in a uniform and accurate manner.

STATISTICS OF COOPERATION

ACTIVITIES OF CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE WHOLESALE SOCIETIES IN 1935. Reprint from the *Monthly Labor Review*, Serial No. R. 401, June 1936, 10 pp. Address: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. Free. An analysis of the services, membership, resources, and business operations of cooperative wholesales for 1934 and 1935. Includes a brief section on wholesales for self-help cooperatives.

CONSUMERS', CREDIT, AND PRODUCTIVE COOPERATION IN 1933. by Florence E. Parker, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bulletin No. 612, 1935, 85 pp. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. A review of developments from 1929 to 1933. An analysis in terms of numbers, membership, resources, and volume of business of local and retail consumers' societies, health associations, central consumers' organizations, educational organizations, credit unions, labor banks, mutual savings banks, building and loan associations, and workers' productive associations.

CONSUMERS' COOPERATION THROUGHOUT THE WORLD IN 1935. Reprint from the *Monthly Labor Review*, Serial No. R. 499, January 1937, 17 pp. Address: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. Free. Gives data on the number, type, membership, production, and sales of cooperatives in specified countries throughout the world.

COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1933. Reprint from *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, Bulletin No. 616, 1936, pp. 57-69. Address: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

STATISTICS OF FARMERS' COOPERATIVE BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS. by R. H. Elsworth. Bulletin No. 6. May 1936, 129 pp., charts. Address: Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Free only to officials of cooperative organizations. A statistical analysis of the development of the different types of cooperatives, with specific information on cooperatives handling cotton, dairy products, forage crops, fruits and vegetables, grain, livestock, nuts, poultry and poultry products, tobacco, and wool. Also includes farmers' purchasing cooperatives, credit associations, mutual fire insurance companies, cooperatives supplying light and power, and trucking associations.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES, DIRECTORIES, AND STUDY COURSES

BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR LEADERS AND MEMBERS OF COOPERATIVES IN RESETTLEMENT COMMUNITIES. 1936, 1 p., mimeographed. Address: Resettlement Administration, Washington, D. C. Free. A selected list of cooperative literature from governmental and non-governmental sources.

CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES (Basic Information Sources). September 1936, 18 pp., mimeographed. Address: Marketing Research Division, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C. Free. A selected list of governmental and non-governmental information sources

on consumer cooperation in the United States and abroad.

COOPERATION IN AGRICULTURE—A SELECTED AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY. compiled by Christina Gardner. Bulletin No. 4. May 1936, 214 pp. Address: Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Free only to persons making a study of agricultural cooperation. A list of the more important sources of information regarding agricultural cooperative enterprise with special reference to purchasing, marketing, and credit cooperatives. Gives a bibliographical sketch of the author of each publication and a digest of the contents. Most of the works listed are in English, though some are in other languages.

PUBLIC AFFAIRS PAMPHLETS (Revised). by Office of Education, U. S. Department of Interior. 1937, 80 pp. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. A bibliography on cooperation and other subjects suitable for forum discussion. Lists author, price, and publisher.

A SELECTED LIST OF GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS OF INTEREST TO CONSUMERS. March 1937, 13 pp. Address: Consumers' Project, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. Free. A selected list of government publications on consumer cooperatives, quality standards, and commodity information.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON CONSUMER EDUCATION AND ORGANIZATION. Publication No. 1, 1936, 33 pp. Address: Consumers' Counsel Division, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Washington, D. C. Free. Lists Federal agencies and some non-profit private organizations performing consumer services.



On the Shelf near the Stove

SECRET of many famous dishes is the dash of seasoning which gives them their distinctive flavor. Cooking meals graduates to culinary art in proportion to the cook's knowledge of the use of condiments to give a subtle taste to food. Of all the seasonings on the shelf near the stove, salt is the most common.

Salt is a white crystalline compound, known chemically as sodium chloride, which is obtained from deposits in the earth or by evaporation of natural brines, such as sea water. In 1935 nearly 8,000,000 tons of salt valued at \$21,000,000 were produced in the United States. Only a portion of this was processed for eating purposes—3,837,613 short tons were used by manufacturers in its briny state. Salt has over 1,500 recognized uses. There is a pinch of salt in the clothes we wear, the glasses we use, the cars we drive.

Table salt, which we often buy in the little cardboard containers with the shaker top, is a fine-grained salt to which perfectly harmless chemicals, if their presence and amount are declared on the label, may be added to give the salt the noncaking quality which consumers want. A few

hundred thousandths of 1 percent of a salt of iodine, usually potassium iodide, is often added to table salt. A lack of iodine in the diet may cause an enlarged thyroid. The most usual way of getting one's necessary quota of iodine is in drinking water. In certain sections of the country known as "goiter belts", where iodine is lacking in the water, iodized salt is extensively used by consumers. Price of iodized and ordinary table salt is the same.

Salt is a seasoning used by people the world over, but individual tastes and national culinary traditions dictate the selections of seasonings, especially the spices one finds in kitchen cupboards. When we speak of spices we usually include all the aromatic vegetable products, such as pepper, mustard, ginger, etc., which are added to food to bring out its

Small items in the food budget, seasonings loom large in importance when budgeters transform low-cost diets into appetizing dishes

flavor or to give a flavor where little exists. Spices contain volatile materials known as essential oils which give them their odor and taste. Though spices are negligible in food value, their addition to food is said to stimulate the gastric juices and hence make food more digestible. For many centuries these pungent buds, flowers, fruits and seeds, roots, bark and leaves of herbs, shrubs, or trees, growing wild in the equatorial countries and carried over circuitous routes to Europe, were the luxury of kings. Today scientific cultivation and rapid and steady transportation make a shelf of spices available to almost every family.

Most of the spices we buy are imported from other countries. Government standards for spices require that they be clean, sound, and true to name, and that no portion of their volatile oil, which gives them their flavor, be removed. The Food and Drug Administration is on guard to see that ground shells, or exhausted spices—spices from which the essential oil has been removed—have not been added to the pepper, ginger, cloves, and other spices we buy. All imported foods—spices included—

must get their O. K. from this Administration before they can be marketed in this country. Chemical analysis is needed to test the purity of spices, but a consumer when selecting them would do well to both taste and smell them to judge their potency. Some spices of poor quality, such as a low grade of cinnamon, are practically flavorless. It is a farsighted economy to buy the best quality spices.

In buying spices one should always buy by weight rather than size of container. Perhaps no other food is packaged in as varied sizes of containers as spices. The size of a can can easily give the impression that it contains more spice than it does. Reading the label is the good consumer insurance against buying slack-filled spicé boxes.

Black and white pepper are two of the common condiments which we find on the dining-room table and on the kitchen shelf. Both are products of the same pepper vine grown in the East Indian Islands, southern India, French Indo-China, and Siam. Ground black pepper, which is stronger and hotter than white pepper, is prepared from the dried immature berry of the pepper vine. White pepper is made from the mature berry after the outer dark husk has been removed. Because ground pepper loses its pungency if allowed to stand too long, many people buy the whole pepper berries and grind them as they use them. Common varieties are Singapore, Acheen, Lanpong, Java, Tellicherry, and Alleppy, but there are over 40 different varieties of pepper plants, the fruits of which have a slightly different flavor and color. When ground, some are dark or light grayish in color, others have a greenish shade. The consumer particular about his pepper soon learns to identify the flavor he prefers by the color of the grind.

Red pepper, which is hotter or

stronger than black pepper, is made from the red, dried, ripe fruit of any species of Capsicum. Cayenne pepper, the hottest of all peppers, is made from a certain small-fruited species of Capsicum. Red pepper mixture contains some cayenne, but a package labeled cayenne pepper, according to the U. S. standards, must be made from the berries of *Capsicum frutescens*.

Piperine, an alkaloid of pepper, stimulates perspiration, thus having a cooling effect on the body if a suf-

ficient amount is eaten. For this reason, pepper is widely used in seasoning food in hot countries. The literal translation of the Mexican dish "chili con carne" is "red pepper with meat." Cayenne pepper is a common constituent of curry powder which is the high-flavor mark of many dishes popular in India. Red pepper is often an ingredient of the ginger ale we drink to "cool off." It also heightens the flavor of many of the sausages and prepared meats which we buy.

Nearly one-half mile below the surface of this land runs a salt vein. A well is drilled down to the vein; a pump brings to the surface the brine from which salt is captured and then refined.

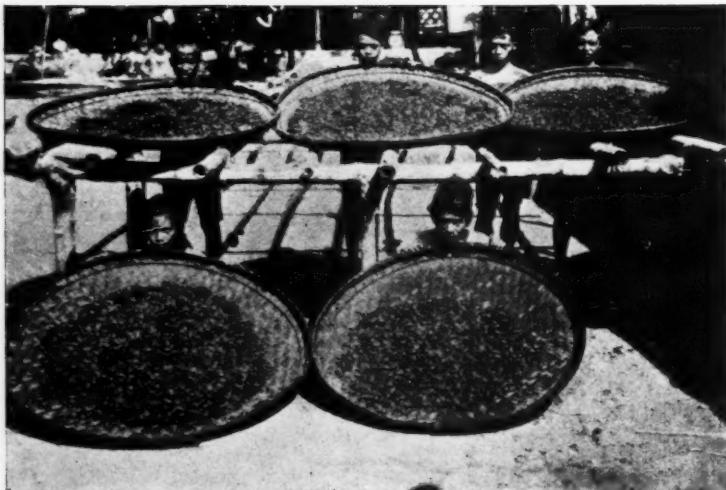




SPICES

From far-off sun-baked lands come many of the little berries, buds, and barks—rich in aromatic oils—which give piquance and pungence to the cheapest of foods. East India ships

us, among other spices, her pepper (above), mace—the fibrous coating of the nutmeg (lower left). From Ceylon comes cinnamon (lower right), prepared from the bark of these sticks.



May 17, 1937

Both pepper and salt have had a romantic and bloody history. Nations have gone to war over salt mines and pepper vines. The gentler spice, paprika, which, because of its flaming color, we use to garnish food as much as we do to season it, does not have such an adventurous past. It is a product of a plant grown extensively in Spain and Hungary. The highest grade of paprika, made from selected pods of the dried ripe fruits of *Capsicum annuum* from which the placentae, stalks, and stems have been removed, is known as Hungarian Rosenpaprika. Olive oil is sometimes added to paprika to heighten its color. It has no other purpose. A paprika label declaring "olive oil added" means that the color of the product has been produced in part by added oil. Paprika should be kept in a dark place, as its color fades if it is exposed to light for any length of time. Also, if kept too long it may develop a slightly rancid odor due to the decomposition of the fixed oil it contains.

Allspice, much in demand in every household during the canning season, is the nearly ripe dried fruit of the pimiento tree. It is also known as pimiento and Jamaica pepper, but it is popularly called allspice because its flavor is said to resemble a mixture of clove, cinnamon, and nutmeg. Though native to Jamaica, which exports the greatest amount, it is grown in other countries. A cheaper spice than the clove, it resembles the clove in its reddish-brown color and small nail-like shape.

The fragrant clove is a dried flower bud of an evergreen tree of the Myrtle family cultivated in the Molucca Islands, Guiana, Ceylon, India, Zanzibar, and the East and West Indies. Cloves of good quality are plump, bright reddish brown in color, and when pressed will readily exude oil. Exhausted cloves are shriveled and dark in color. The

common way of adulterating cloves in the past was by mixing exhausted cloves and clove stems, which have very little spice value, with cloves of good quality. According to Food and Drug standards, a product labeled cloves should not contain more than 5 percent stems. In Persia, centuries ago, cloves were an important ingredient in love potions. Today they are used in many places to make perfume in imitation of carnations, and the vanillin in clove is used to manufacture imitation of vanilla extract. In the kitchen the clove has numerous uses. It is a favorite seasoning used in baking ham, and it enhances the flavor of many pickles, ketchups, and preserved fruits.

Capers, commonly used in Europe but rather rare in the average American kitchen, is a flower spice, coming from a shrub which is native to the countries bordering the Mediterranean. In lands where it is cultivated for a culinary use, the buds are picked daily during June and July and kept in the dark for 3 or 4 hours and then are pickled in vinegar. Capers are small, somewhat four-angled in shape and are dark greenish brown in color, mottled with bright green.

Dried leaves of many shrubs and trees are used to give a distinctive tang to food. Bay leaves used to flavor fish, soups, custards, and puddings, come from the sweet laurel plant whose leaves were gathered by the Greeks and Romans for wreaths of victory. French cooks, famed for their use of bouquets—a mixture of sweet herbs—consider a bay leaf an essential part of their spice combination.

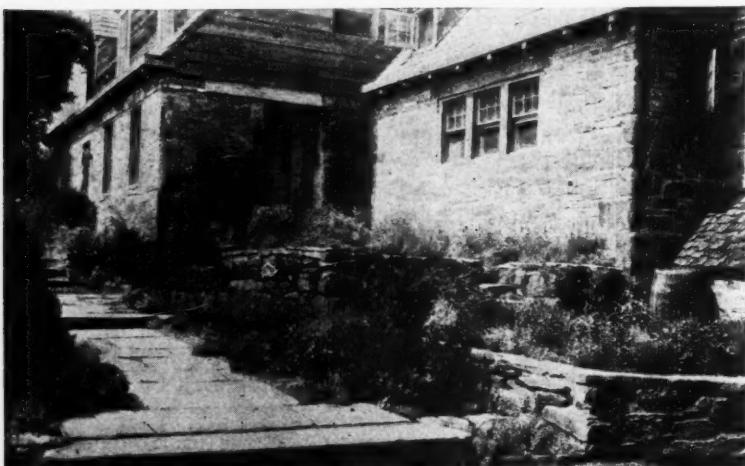
Dried leaves of the common garden sage, which grows in southern Europe, is a spice popularly used with meats and dressings. Austrian sage, known as Dalmatian, is considered the best quality. Next in quality is the French, then Italian,

then Greek. In buying sage you will usually find the word Dalmatian, French, or Italian on the label.

Thyme and marjoram are two seasonings which the mint family contribute to the pantry shelf. Dried leaves and the flowering tops of these plants are used to flavor many sauces and soups.

Seeds of plants as well as their flowers and leaves are used as condiments to make eating more than a humdrum necessity. The most important ingredient of the prepared mustard which we spread on our hot dogs is flour made from ground mustard seeds which comes from an annual herb which grows in both Europe and America. The seed has a large amount of volatile oil but unlike most spices it demands a liquid to bring out its flavor. Many people prefer to make their own mustard, and buy mustard flour and mix it with water, vinegar, or milk immediately before use. In mixing mustard, tepid or cold but never hot liquid should be used. There are 2 types of mustard seeds in common use, known as black or brown and white or yellow mustard. The paste we use on our meats is usually made from a mixture of both—black for aroma and white for pungency.

Nutmeg and mace are both products of the nutmeg tree native to the East Indian Archipelago. Nutmeg is the dried, hard seed, and mace, which is retailed in powder form, is made from grinding the coating surrounding the nutmeg. The flavors of the two are quite different. Mace is added to sauces for fish, to pickles, and to ketchup. It is said to have a "smooth" flavor. Nutmeg is a favorite spice for sweet dishes, such as custard. It also gives a filip to egg-nogs, ales, and punch. There are two general varieties of mace, known as East Indian and West Indian mace. West Indian mace which is commonly used is light yellow in color. Many spice connoisseurs,



Many herbs used for seasoning food can be cultivated in the home garden. The flagstone walk and terraces of this herb garden, near Washington, D. C., are bordered with a bouquet of spices—Thyme, sweet marjoram, tansy, sage, and summer savory.

however, prefer the darker East Indian mace which they think has a superior flavor. Each consumer can judge for herself by sampling the two varieties.

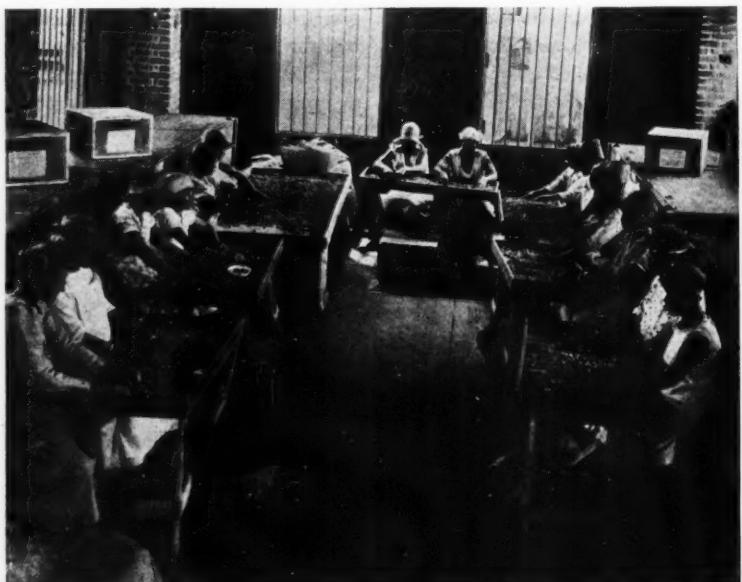
Nutmegs are sold whole or in powder form. Normal nutmegs should be well rounded and symmetrical and brown in color. "Shrivels", or nutmegs that arrive in this country more or less shriveled, are often used for the powdered product. Ground nutmeg varies in value according to appearance and color. Good sound nutmegs will produce a light-brown grind, while a dark grind is often an indication that the spice has been processed from imperfect seeds.

Cinnamon, used in so many holiday dishes that it is often called the "joy spice", is the bark of either the cinnamon or cassia tree. True cinnamon of the finest quality, is the dried bark of the young branches of a small tree cultivated chiefly in Ceylon. The thin pieces of bark when

scraped and dried curl into quill-like rolls and are usually orange yellow with wavy lines of lighter color. Different varieties of cinnamon have different flavors varying from the mild, delicate flavor of Ceylon cinnamon to the strong and pungent flavor of the Saigon cinnamon. The quality of cinnamon depends on the amount and flavor of oil in the bark. China cinnamon which is darker

and coarser than the Ceylon, Batavia, or Saigon spice, has a smaller amount of essential oil, and is often practically flavorless. Though you will often see a product labeled Ceylon, Batavia, or Saigon cinnamon, you will seldom find the trade mark China cinnamon. Usually it will be marked merely "cinnamon." Though high-grade cinnamons cost more they give the best results. Cinnamon should always be kept in a well-closed container.

Ginger, one of the earliest-known spices, mentioned in Sanskrit literature and in the Talmud, is the root of an herb cultivated in tropical countries. Jamaica ginger, grown in the West Indies, is the best quality. Though Canton, China, makes a specialty of exporting ginger preserved in a sugar syrup, most ginger comes to this country in the dried state. In the trade the rhizomes, or underground stems of the ginger plant used for spice, are often called "hands" because of their somewhat palmate shape. To prepare the ginger for market the outer coating of the "hands" is removed, then they are washed and dried in



Workers in this Grenada warehouse are grading nutmegs. Best quality are sold for spice. Very small, damaged, and broken nutmegs are sold for oil which is often used as a flavoring for dentifrices and making perfumes.

May 17, 1937

the sun—and often as a protection against mildew they are "bleached" or coated with lime. Both the irregularly shaped pieces of ginger and the powdered ginger vary in color from light yellow to brown. The best quality gingers usually are of the lighter shades and when a piece is broken, the edges have a starchy, fibrous, resinous appearance. At one time ginger was used for spicing wine. Today it is the main ingredient of the English ginger beer and our ginger ale. It also adds zest to many courses of a dinner from soup to dessert.

Preliminary estimate of the total number of pounds of spices imported into the United States during 1936 is 141,898,046—valued at \$12,526,555. Black unground pepper led all other spices, the estimated total being 69,345,389 pounds.

"OUR farmer friends need *your* help!" radioed a great national retail distributor of foods in mid-May. "There is a greater than normal supply of eggs . . . and producers everywhere require assistance to help move the surplus. You can help the farmers—and at the same time help *your* food budget—by serving eggs more often. You'll save money—and aid the country's egg producers in the bargain." . . . Other distributors have joined in this move to help producers and consumers. The National Association of Food Chains has called on its members to "cooperate with producers by reducing spread on eggs wherever possible in order to increase consumption, especially on best-grade eggs." For 2 months distributors of eggs—strategically placed to boost, if they will, producer-consumer interests—are asked to pull together in this effort to help producers get prices which will keep egg production on the upgrade and to help consumers get adequate supplies at fair prices.

STUDY QUESTIONS FOR THIS ISSUE

1. Where is the "ultimate" unit of weight, against which scales and weights used in business are measured for accuracy?
2. Which are more important in the writing of information labels on goods: Adjectives or nouns?
3. How many of the four types of lettuce can you find in your markets?
4. Which lettuce leaves, the outside or inside, have the most vitamins?
5. Why are salad greens an important food?
6. What did the AAA marketing agreement for lettuce growers and handlers hope to accomplish?
7. Are the spices we import from abroad inspected by a Government office?
8. How many spices do you now have on your kitchen shelves? From what countries do these spices come?
9. What facts did Congress wish the Federal Trade Commission to discover in its study of agricultural income?
10. How did 1934 incomes of milk producers compare with incomes of leading fluid milk processors and distributors?
11. How much of the dollar consumers paid in 1935 for bread went to wheat farmers?
12. What share of all the tobacco produced in 1934 was purchased by three manufacturing companies?
13. What changes in the Clayton Antitrust Act does the Commission suggest as a check on monopoly?

Our Point of View

The CONSUMERS' GUIDE believes that consumption is the end and purpose of production

To that end the CONSUMERS' GUIDE emphasizes the consumer's right to full and correct information on prices, quality of commodities, and on costs and efficiency of distribution. It aims to aid consumers in making wise and economical purchases by reporting changes in prices and costs of food and farm commodities. It relates these changes to developments in the agricultural and general programs of national recovery. It reports on cooperative efforts which are being made by individuals and groups of consumers to obtain the greatest possible value for their expenditures.

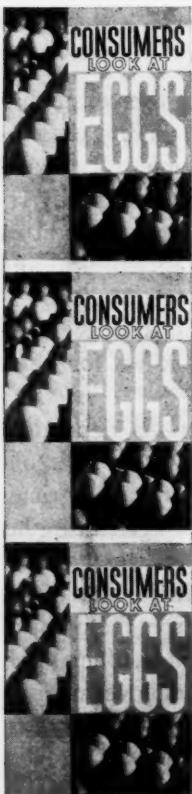
The producer of raw materials—the farmer—is dependent upon the consuming power of the people. Likewise, the consumer depends upon the sustained producing power of agriculture. The common interests of consumers and of agriculture far outweigh diversity of interests.

While the CONSUMERS' GUIDE makes public official data of the Departments of Agriculture, Labor, and Commerce, the point of view expressed in its pages does not necessarily reflect official policy but is a presentation of governmental and nongovernmental measures looking toward the advancement of consumers' interests.

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YOUR ANSWERS ARE HERE



How can you be sure, when you buy eggs, that you are getting fresh ones? How much egg do you get in a dozen? Are storage eggs inferior to fresh? What are the advantages to producers and consumers in grading? Who should do the grading? . . . Answers to these egg-buying problems come in this illustrated bulletin—"CONSUMERS' LOOK AT EGGS"—the first of a series of consumer study outlines, released by the Consumers' Counsel Division of the AAA and the Consumers' Project of the Department of Labor. Two carefully planned programs for consumer groups, schools, cooperatives, tell you how to prepare for the study, conduct the meetings, and clinch the facts which consumers should know when they go to market for this essential food.

Copies, priced at 10 cents each, are
on sale by the

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